

Dynamic fragmentation in a quenched two-mode Bose–Einstein condensate

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We investigate the fragmentation in a two-mode Bose–Einstein condensate with Josephson coupling. We explore how the fragmentation and entropy of the ground state depend on the intermode asymmetry and interparticle interactions. Owing to the interplay between the asymmetry and the interactions, a sequence of notches and plateaus in the fragmentation appears with the single-atom tunneling and interaction blockade, respectively. We then analyze the dynamical properties of the fragmentation in three typical quenches of the asymmetry: linear, sudden, and periodic quenches. In a linear quench, the final state is a fragmented state due to the sequential Landau–Zener tunneling, which can be analytically explained by applying the two-level Landau–Zener formula for each avoided level crossing. In a sudden quench, the fragmentation exhibits persistent fluctuations that sensitively depend on the interparticle interactions and intermode coupling. In a periodic quench, the fragmentation is modulated by the periodic driving, and a suitable modulation may allow one to control the fragmentation.

Keywords fragmentation, two-mode BEC, quantum quench

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1 Introduction

In 1956, Penrose and Onsager [1] gave the concept of Bose–Einstein condensation (BEC) based on the single-particle density matrix (SPDM) for an interacting system of N particles. Correspondingly, the eigenvalues and eigenvectors are referred to as the occupation numbers and natural orbitals, respectively. Simple BEC appears when the SPDM has only one macroscopic eigenvalue of order N . However, the system is said to be fragmented if the SPDM has two or more eigenvalues of order N , i.e., there is more than one macroscopically occupied state. Moreover, the system is strongly correlated if all eigenvalues are of order 1, and there is no trace of condensation [2]. Ground-state fragmentation has been observed in several systems involving specific spatial or spin symmetries. Examples include scalar bosons in either a single-trap [3, 4] or a double-trap potential [5], attractive condensates in a one-dimensional ring trap [6], two-

component Bose gases [7], and spinor Bose gases [8–13].

A typical system for exploring the mechanism of fragmentation is a two-mode Bose–Josephson junction (BJJ) [2, 14], which can be realized by loading Bose condensed atoms into a double-well potential. Usually, strong interparticle interactions will induce a high degree of fragmentation [15–17], and different kinds of interactions will cause different types of fluctuations. As pointed out in [18], both repulsive and attractive interactions can lead to fragmented ground states; however, they have completely different two-particle correlations. In the case of repulsive interactions, the ground state is a Fock state with the number fluctuations $(\Delta\hat{N})^2 \sim 0$, which is clearly fragmented. In the case of attractive interactions, the ground state is a general Schrödinger-cat-like state and “superfragmented”, as the number fluctuations $(\Delta\hat{N})^2$ is huge, i.e., of order N^2 [9]. In addition, the ground state is found to be a pair condensate, which is also fragmented, in the presence of strong pair tunneling [19]. The ground-state fragmentation in a BJJ

has been extensively studied by employing the Bose–Hubbard dimer. In the case of weak interactions, dynamic fragmentation has been uncovered [20]. However, the out-of-equilibrium behaviors of fragmentation, such as the dynamic fragmentation in quenched systems, have rarely been studied.

A quench refers to varying a physical parameter in order to drive the system across a quantum phase transition. The nonadiabatic dynamics of isolated quantum systems following a quantum quench have attracted great interest in both experiments [21–25] and theories [26–37]. Owing to the well-developed techniques for tuning physical parameters (including the on-site energy, the interaction energy, the tunneling strength, etc.), the out-of-equilibrium dynamics such as thermalization [38–43], the dynamics of a quantum phase transition [44–48], and quantum transport [49–52] in quenched many-body quantum systems have been extensively investigated.

In this article, we have investigated the fragmentation of a coupled two-mode Bose–Einstein condensate, which undergoes quantum quenches. First, we show how the ground-state fragmentation and entropy depend on the asymmetry and interactions. Interestingly, sequential fragmentation appears with the sequential interaction blockade owing to the interplay between the asymmetry and the interparticle interactions. Further, we discuss the fragmentation dynamics following three typical quenches of the asymmetry: linear, sudden, and periodic. The linear quench is actually a many-body Landau–Zener (LZ) process in which nonadiabatic transitions take place when the asymmetry is driven across the anticrossing points. Below, we will discuss how these nonadiabatic transitions affect the fragmentation. Another crucial question to be answered is the robustness of fragmentation against an instantaneous perturbation, the so-called sudden quench. Regarding periodic driving, we demonstrate that the system can be approximated by an undriven system with a renormalized tunneling strength if the driving frequency is sufficiently high. The renormalization of the tunneling strength via periodic driving provides an efficient method to modulate the fragmentation.

The structure of this article is as follows. In Section 2 we describe our model. In Section 3, we define the measure of the degree of fragmentation and investigate the ground-state fragmentation and entropy. We explore how the ground-state fragmentation and entropy depend on the asymmetry and interactions. In Section 4, we address dynamic fragmentation following three typical quantum quenches. In the last section, we summarize our results.

2 Model

We consider the system of Bose condensed atoms in a double-well potential. If the barrier between the two wells is sufficiently high, one can apply the two-mode approximation, such that the system can be described by the two-mode Bose–Hubbard Hamiltonian [53–62]:

$$\hat{H} = \frac{\delta}{2}(\hat{n}_2 - \hat{n}_1) + \frac{E_c}{8}(\hat{n}_2 - \hat{n}_1)^2 - T(\hat{a}_1^\dagger \hat{a}_2 + \hat{a}_1 \hat{a}_2^\dagger), \quad (1)$$

where \hat{a}_i^\dagger , \hat{a}_i , and $\hat{n}_i = \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i$ are the creation, annihilation, and number operators, respectively. Here, δ denotes the asymmetry between the two wells, E_c is the on-site interaction energy, and T is the interwell tunneling strength. It is apparent that the Hamiltonian conserves the total number of atoms $N = \langle \hat{N} \rangle = \langle \hat{n}_1 + \hat{n}_2 \rangle$, as $[\hat{N}, \hat{H}] = 0$. By applying the Wigner–Schwinger pseudospin representation [63] $\hat{J}_x = \frac{1}{2}(\hat{a}_2^\dagger \hat{a}_1 + \hat{a}_1^\dagger \hat{a}_2)$, $\hat{J}_y = \frac{1}{2i}(\hat{a}_2^\dagger \hat{a}_1 - \hat{a}_1^\dagger \hat{a}_2)$, $\hat{J}_z = \frac{1}{2}(\hat{a}_2^\dagger \hat{a}_2 - \hat{a}_1^\dagger \hat{a}_1)$, the Hamiltonian is equivalent to the giant spin model:

$$\hat{H} = \delta \hat{J}_z + \frac{E_c}{2} \hat{J}_z^2 - 2T \hat{J}_x. \quad (2)$$

The above Hamiltonian can be diagonalized in the $(N+1)$ -dimensional space spanned by the basis $|J = N/2, J_z = m\rangle$ with $m = -N/2, -N/2+1, \dots, N/2$. Thus, an arbitrary state can be written in form of [57]

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_m C_m |N/2, m\rangle, \quad (3)$$

where the complex number C_m denotes the probability amplitude of the state $|N/2, m\rangle$.

Here, we only consider the case of repulsive interactions (i.e., $E_c > 0$). The system can be separated into three different regimes by the ratio of E_J/E_c , where $E_J = NT$ is the junction energy [2, 64]: the Rabi regime ($E_J/E_c \gg N^2$), the Josephson regime ($1 \ll E_J/E_c \ll N^2$), and the Fock regime ($E_J/E_c \ll 1$). In the Rabi regime, the ground state is an $SU(2)$ coherent state, and the system possesses no fragmentation. In the Josephson and Fock regimes, the coherent state can be turned into a Schrödinger-cat-like state, which is fragmented, as the number fluctuations are reduced [17]. In Fig. 1, we show the energy spectra for different values of E_J/E_c . If E_c between the particles dominates the Hamiltonian, the ground state undergoes N avoided level crossings, which correspond to transferring one particle from one well to the other. As the tunneling strength increases, the avoided level crossings open and develop a swallowtail-like loop structure in the excited states.

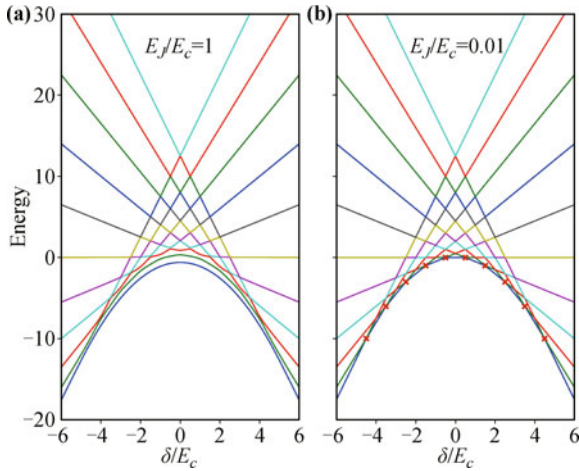


Fig. 1 The energy spectra of the Hamiltonian in Eq. (2) versus δ/E_c for (a) $E_J/E_c = 1$ and (b) $E_J/E_c = 0.01$. Red crosses denote the avoided level crossings. Here, the total number of atoms is $N = 10$.

3 Fragmentation and entropy of ground states

To understand the dynamics of fragmentation in quantum quenches, we analyze the fragmentation of the instantaneous ground states at first. Below, we will show how the ground-state fragmentation depends on the asymmetry and interactions and also briefly discuss the corresponding entropies.

3.1 Fragmentation

The general concept of BEC is defined by using the SPDM $\rho^{(1)}$ [1]:

$$\rho_{\mathbf{r},\mathbf{r}'}^{(1)} = \langle \hat{\psi}^\dagger(\mathbf{r}') \hat{\psi}(\mathbf{r}) \rangle, \quad (4)$$

where $\hat{\psi}^\dagger(\mathbf{r})$ and $\hat{\psi}(\mathbf{r})$ are the bosonic field operators, and $\langle \dots \rangle$ denotes the average. Following this definition, $\rho^{(1)}$ is a Hermitian matrix with real eigenvalues. Therefore, one can write the SPDM in the form of

$$\rho_{\mathbf{r},\mathbf{r}'}^{(1)} = \sum_i \phi(\mathbf{r}')^* \lambda_i \phi(\mathbf{r}), \quad (5)$$

where λ_i denotes the eigenvalues, and $\phi(\mathbf{r})$ denotes the corresponding orthonormal eigenfunctions [2, 17].

To characterize the degree of condensation, one has to diagonalize $\rho^{(1)}$ and analyze its eigenvalues. For a given state $|\psi\rangle$, we have

$$\rho_{\mu,\nu}^{(1)} = \langle \psi | \hat{a}_\mu^\dagger \hat{a}_\nu | \psi \rangle. \quad (6)$$

The appearance of fragmentation corresponds to the emergence of more than one macroscopic eigenvalue of the SPDM, which means particles occupying more than

one state/orbit. To characterize the fragmentation, one can use the relative occupation n_0/N , where n_0 denotes the maximum occupation number [5, 20]. Here, for our system, it is convenient to define the degree of fragmentation as

$$F = \frac{2(N - \lambda_{\max})}{N}, \quad (7)$$

where λ_{\max} is the maximum eigenvalue of $\rho^{(1)}$.

F has a minimum of 0 in the strong asymmetry limit, where the SPDM has a single macroscopic eigenvalue $\lambda_{\max} = N$, leading to all atoms condensed in a single-particle orbit; thus, the system is a pure Bose-Einstein condensate. The maximum of F is 1 in the limit of strong interactions, where the two modes are equally occupied with $\lambda_{\max} = N/2$, and the system is fully fragmented [17]. A transition from a zero F to a nonzero F indicates the occurrence of fragmentation.

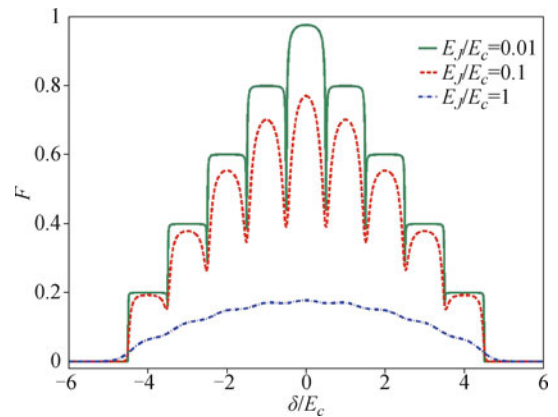


Fig. 2 The degree of ground-state fragmentation F versus δ/E_c and different values of E_J/E_c . The blue dash-dotted, red dashed, and green solid lines correspond to $E_J/E_c = 1$, 0.1, and 0.01, respectively. Here, the total number of atoms is $N = 10$.

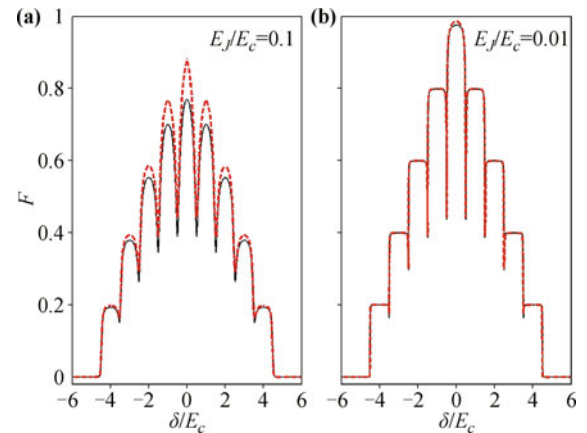


Fig. 3 A comparison of the perturbation (red dashed lines) and numerical (solid lines) results for (a) $E_J/E_c = 0.1$ and (b) $E_J/E_c = 0.01$.

In Fig. 2, we show how the ground-state fragmentation depends on the scaled asymmetry δ/E_c . The asymmetry prefers all atoms to be located in the lower well, whereas the repulsive interactions prefer equal atomic populations in the two wells. If the asymmetry dominates, almost all of the atoms are located in one well; therefore, the system does not exhibit fragmentation. As $|\delta/E_c|$ decreases, the interactions begin to dominate, atoms tunnel between two wells to seek the state of zero population difference, and fragmentation appears. The system reaches the maximum degree of fragmentation at $\delta/E_c = 0$.

It can be seen that the fragmentation is more significant for smaller values of E_J/E_c , which correspond to stronger interactions. Before the asymmetry begins to dominate, the ground-state properties depend on E_J/E_c . For large E_J/E_c , atoms are delocalized, and the system is globally phase coherent [65], possessing no fragmentation. As the interactions become stronger, the number fluctuations in each well are squeezed, and the ground state is then localized in a few atom number states, which brings about an increase in the fragmentation [17, 64].

In the Fock regime ($E_J/E_c \ll 1$), the system exhibits a series of fragmentation notches and plateaus by varying the asymmetry δ . Neglecting the tunneling term, the energy for the eigenstate with a quasiangular momentum m is given as $E(m) = \delta m + \frac{E_c}{2} m^2$, and two eigenstates become degenerate when $E(m) = E(m+1)$. At the critical points of $\delta = -(m + \frac{1}{2})E_c$ for $m = -\frac{N}{2}, -\frac{N}{2} + 1, \dots, \frac{N}{2} - 1$, single-atom resonant tunneling takes place, and fragmentation notches appear owing to the balance between the interactions and the asymmetry [66]. Between fragmentation notches, fragmentation plateaus corresponding to the interaction blockade appear.

One can also employ a perturbation analysis to analyze the ground-state fragmentation. The ground state can be

expressed as $|\Psi\rangle = \beta_1|\psi_1\rangle + \beta_2|\psi_2\rangle$, where $|\psi_1\rangle = |\frac{N}{2}, m\rangle$ and $|\psi_2\rangle = |\frac{N}{2}, m'\rangle$ are the two lowest states, $m' = m - 1$ for $\delta < 0$, and $m' = m + 1$ for $\delta > 0$. The two coefficients $\{\beta_1, \beta_2\}$ are determined by the eigenvalue problem

$$\begin{pmatrix} H_{11} & H_{12} \\ H_{21} & H_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{pmatrix} = E \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (8)$$

where $H_{ij} = \langle \psi_i | \hat{H} | \psi_j \rangle (i, j = 1, 2)$ [66]. For simplicity, we assume $\delta < 0$ for the following discussion, but the derivation can also be extended to $\delta > 0$. Near the critical points, we can write δ as $\delta = \delta_m + \xi$, where $|\xi| \leq \frac{E_c}{2}$. After some calculations, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_1 &= -\frac{1}{\Theta} \frac{\xi - \sqrt{T^2(N+2m)(N-2m+2) + \xi^2}}{T\sqrt{(N+2m)(N-2m+2)}}, \\ \beta_2 &= \frac{1}{\Theta}, \\ \Theta^2 &= \frac{2\xi^2 + 2T^2(N+2m)(N-2m+2)}{T^2(N+m)(N-2m+2)} \\ &\quad - \frac{2\xi\sqrt{T^2(N+2m)(N-2m+2)}}{T^2(N+m)(N-2m+2)}, \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

where Θ^2 is the normalization factor. For $\xi = 0$, this leads to $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 1/\sqrt{2}$; that is, the ground state is the equal-probability superposition of $|\psi_1\rangle$ and $|\psi_2\rangle$. The corresponding SPDM can be written as

$$\rho^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho_{11}^{(1)} & \rho_{12}^{(1)} \\ \rho_{21}^{(1)} & \rho_{22}^{(1)} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (10)$$

where the four elements are

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_{11}^{(1)} &= \frac{N}{2} - m + \gamma, \\ \rho_{12}^{(1)} &= \rho_{21}^{(1)} = \eta, \\ \rho_{22}^{(1)} &= \frac{N}{2} + m - \gamma, \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma &= \frac{T^2(N+m)(N-2m+2)}{2\xi^2 - 2\xi\sqrt{T^2(N+2m)(N-2m+2) + \xi^2} + 2T^2(N+2m)(N-2m+2)}, \\ \eta &= -\frac{T(N+2m)(N-2m+2)\left(\xi - \sqrt{T^2(N+2m)(N-2m+2) + \xi^2}\right)}{4\left(\xi^2 - \xi\sqrt{T^2(N+2m)(N-2m+2) + \xi^2} + T^2(N+2m)(N-2m+2)\right)}. \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

By diagonalizing $\rho^{(1)}$, one can obtain its two eigenvalues

$$\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{N}{2} \pm \sqrt{(m-\gamma)^2 + \eta^2}. \quad (13)$$

Therefore, F is given as

$$F = \frac{2(N - \lambda_2)}{N}$$

$$= \frac{N - 2\sqrt{(m-\gamma)^2 + \eta^2}}{N}. \quad (14)$$

In Fig. 3, we show the dependence of F on δ/E_c . It is clear that the perturbation results (red dashed lines) are well consistent with the numerical results (black lines) for small values of E_J/E_c .

3.2 Entropy

In addition to the Penrose–Onsager condensation criterion, one can characterize the fragmentation via the entropy. On the basis of the concept of the von Neumann entropy, we define the entropy S_1 as

$$S_1 = - \sum_i p_i \ln p_i, \quad (15)$$

where $p_i = \lambda_i/N$ ($i = 1, 2$) represents the normalized eigenvalues of $\rho^{(1)}$ [67]. We refer to it as the “single body entropy”, as it is based on the single-body density matrix. Obviously, we have $p_1 + p_2 = 1$. The entropy S_1 has a maximum of $\ln 2$ when $p_1 = p_2 = 1/2$ and a minimum of 0 when $p_i = \delta_{i,2}$. Therefore, the maximum corresponds to the equal occupation of the two modes, where the ground state is a fully fragmented state, and the minimum corresponds to a single condensate. A nonzero S_1 indicates the existence of fragmentation. This means that S_1 can serve as an alternative quantity to depict the fragmentation.

To characterize the spread of a state in the Fock basis [68], we introduce another entropy S_2 , referred to as the “many-body entropy”, and

$$S_2 = - \sum_m |C_m|^2 \ln |C_m|^2, \quad (16)$$

where C_m is the probability amplitude. S_2 has a maximum for the equally populated state with $|C_m|^2 = 1/(N+1)$ and a minimum for a macroscopically occupied state with $C_m = \delta_{m,m'}$. As S_1 characterizes the degree of fragmentation, S_2 can be used to study the degree of complexity of a state and to identify whether a many-body quantum state is a single Fock state or a superposition of multiple Fock states.

In Fig. 4, we show S_1 and S_2 versus δ/E_c . Obviously,

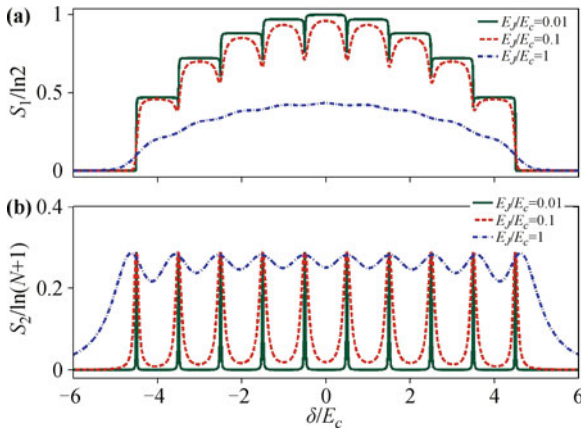


Fig. 4 Ground-state entropies S_1 (a) and S_2 (b) versus the scaled asymmetry δ/E_c for $E_J/E_c = 1$ (blue dash-dotted lines), $E_J/E_c = 0.1$ (red dashed lines), and $E_J/E_c = 0.01$ (green solid lines). Here, the total number of atoms is $N = 10$.

the dependence of S_1 on δ/E_c is similar to that for F . When $|\delta/E_c|$ decreases, the population difference between the two wells decreases; thus, S_1 increases. Assuming that the tunneling strength can be ignored, a series of steps and notches appear in S_1 owing to the occurrence of single-atom tunneling and the interaction blockade. As the ground state of the system of strong repulsive interactions is a single Fock state with a well-defined number of atoms in each well, we have $S_2 = 0$ between two neighboring critical points. It is also clearly shown that sharp peaks in S_2 appear at the critical points where single-atom tunneling takes place. When the tunneling energy E_J increases, the valleys of S_2 are increased, and the peaks of S_2 are broadened.

4 Fragmentation in quantum quenches

In this section, we analyze the dynamic fragmentation in three typical types of asymmetry quenches: linear, sudden, and periodic quenches.

4.1 Linear quench

We consider the linear quench following $\delta(t) = \delta_i + \alpha t$, where α is the sweep rate, and the initial asymmetry $\delta(0) = |\delta_i| \gg E_c$. Apparently, the system possesses no fragmentation for such an initial asymmetry. To obtain a quantitative picture of how the dynamic fragmentation depends on the sweep rate, we calculate the fidelity between the instantaneous state and the instantaneous ground state:

$$P(t) = |\langle \Psi(t) | \text{GS}(\delta/E_c) \rangle|^2, \quad (17)$$

where $|\Psi(t)\rangle$ and $|\text{GS}(\delta/E_c)\rangle$ are the instantaneous state and instantaneous ground states, respectively.

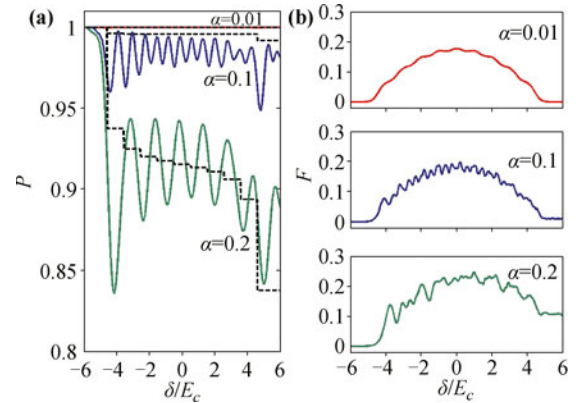


Fig. 5 (a) Fidelity P versus δ/E_c for different sweep rates α . The dashed lines are derived from the analytical formula in Eq. (18). (b) The degree of fragmentation F versus δ/E_c for different values of α . The other parameters are set as $E_J/E_c = 1$ and $N = 10$.

In Fig. 5, we show F and P for a moderate tunneling strength $E_J/E_c = 1$. For a sufficiently small sweep rate, $\alpha = 0.01$, the system remains in the instantaneous ground state, and F is almost the same as the static one. For a moderate sweep rate, $\alpha = 0.1$, F follows the static one before the system approaches the first LZ transition point. Then, the first LZ tunneling takes place, and F exhibits oscillations. According to LZ theory [69], nonadiabatic transitions take place around an avoided level crossing, and the LZ transition probability is given as $P_{LZ} = \exp(-\frac{\pi\Delta^2}{2\alpha})$, where Δ denotes the minimum energy gap for the avoided crossings. Thus, the probability of finding the system in the instantaneous ground state is $(1 - P_{LZ})$.

By applying the LZ formula to each avoided crossing, the sequential LZ transitions can be regarded as a sequence of two-level LZ transitions. Consequently, the dynamic probabilities of finding the system in the instantaneous ground state after each anticrossing are given as [70]

$$\begin{aligned} P_1 &= 1 - P_{LZ}(\Delta_{01,\alpha}), \\ P_2 &= [1 - P_{LZ}(\Delta_{02,\alpha})][1 - P_{LZ}(\Delta_{01,\alpha})], \\ &\dots \\ P_n &= \prod_{i=1}^n [1 - P_{LZ}(\Delta_{0i,\alpha})]. \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

In Fig. 5, we show both analytical and numerical results for P . For small sweep rates, the analytical results coincide well with the numerical results.

Owing to the nonadiabatic LZ transitions, the final degree of fragmentation becomes different from the static situation. To reveal the appearance of nonadiabatic transitions, we show the average value of \hat{J}_z for different values of α in Fig. 6(a). Evidently, the final $\langle \hat{J}_z \rangle$ has an increase for large sweep rates, which indicates that the system is no longer a single condensate but a fragmented

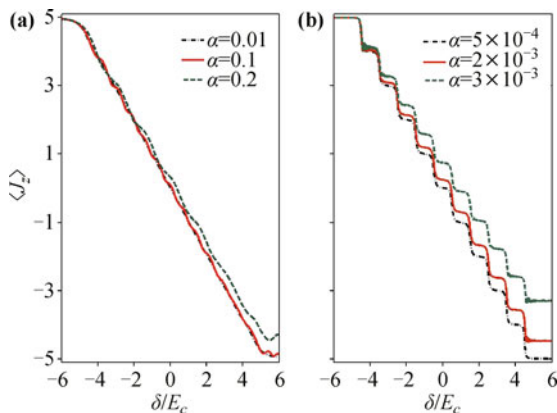


Fig. 6 The average value of J_z versus δ/E_c for (a) $E_J/E_c = 1$ and (b) $E_J/E_c = 0.1$. Here, the total number of atoms is $N = 10$.

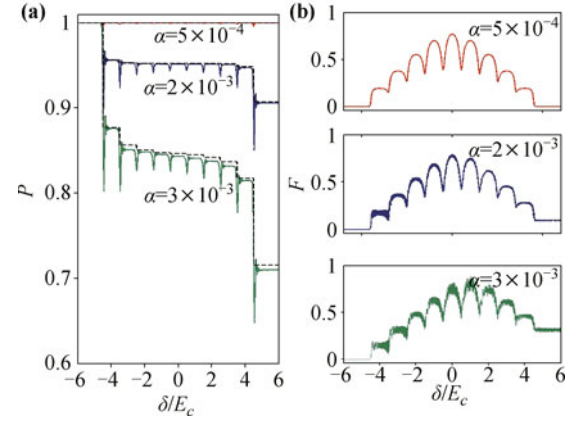


Fig. 7 (a) Fidelity P versus δ/E_c for different sweep rates α . The dashed lines correspond to the analytical results given by the sequential LZ picture in Eq. (18). (b) The degree of fragmentation F versus δ/E_c for different sweep rates α . The other parameters are set as $E_J/E_c = 0.1$ and $N = 10$.

one. For a larger sweep rate, the fragmentation oscillations are enhanced, and the system ends up with a higher degree of fragmentation.

In Fig. 7, we show F for a weak tunneling strength $E_J/E_c = 0.1$. The degree of fragmentation first remains the same as the static one and then begins to fluctuate when the system approaches the transition points. Similarly, we apply the sequential LZ picture in Eq. (18) to each avoided crossing and find a sharp decrease in the fidelity at the critical points. Owing to the well-defined avoided crossings for weak tunneling, the analytical results given by the sequential LZ picture in Eq. (18) are in very good agreement with the numerical results. Again, the system ends up with a fragmented state for large α .

4.2 Sudden quench

We consider a sudden quench in which the asymmetry is suddenly changed from an initial value to a final value. This can be experimentally achieved by rapidly shifting the center of the confining magnetic trap. We assume that the system is prepared in the ground state $|\Psi(0)\rangle$ of the initial Hamiltonian \hat{H}_i with $\delta = \delta_i$, which corresponds to a fragmented instantaneous ground state. At $t = 0$, δ is suddenly changed to a different value $\delta = \delta_f$, which corresponds to an instantaneous ground state without fragmentation. Then, the system evolves under the final Hamiltonian \hat{H}_f .

By using the sudden approximation, the time-evolution is given as [27, 30, 71]

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = e^{-i\hat{H}_f t} |\Psi(0)\rangle = \sum_n c_n e^{-iE_n t} |\psi_n\rangle, \quad (19)$$

where E_n and $|\psi_n\rangle$ denote the eigenenergies and eigen-

states of the final Hamiltonian \hat{H}_f , respectively. Here, $c_n = \langle \psi_n | \Psi(0) \rangle$ is the overlap between the initial state $|\Psi(0)\rangle$ and the eigenstate $|\psi_n\rangle$. Thus, the time-dependent expectation values of an arbitrary operator are given as

$$\langle \Psi(t) | \mathcal{O} | \Psi(t) \rangle = \sum_{n', n} c_{n'} c_n e^{-i(E_{n'} - E_n)t} \langle \psi_{n'} | \mathcal{O} | \psi_n \rangle. \quad (20)$$

In Fig. 8, we show the dynamic fragmentation for $\delta_i = -4$, $\delta_f = -5$, and different values of E_J/E_c . We find that the fragmentation exhibits persistent fluctuations around some specific averaged values in all cases, and the fluctuations depend on E_J/E_c . For a moderate $E_J/E_c = 1$, the fragmentation exhibits collapses and revivals. The fluctuation amplitudes increase with E_J/E_c . It is also found that the fragmentations oscillate with more than one frequency that depends on the distribution of the initial state in the spectrum of the final Hamiltonian [27]. To understand the dynamic fragmentation, we project the initial state onto the eigenstates of \hat{H}_f in Fig. 8(b). For $E_J/E_c = 1$, the initial state has a finite overlap with many eigenstates such that the fragmentation has strong fluctuations according to Eq. (20). However, for $E_J/E_c = 0.1$ and $E_J/E_c = 0.01$, the initial state has a large overlap with one eigenstate of the final Hamiltonian such that the fragmentation fluctuations are suppressed.

4.3 Periodic quench

We consider a periodic quench in which the asymmetry is periodically modulated in time: $\delta(t) = \mu \sin(\omega t)$, where μ is the modulation amplitude, and ω is the modulation

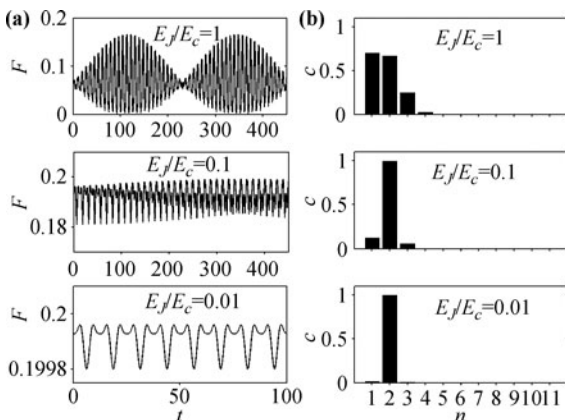


Fig. 8 (a) Fragmentation dynamics for different values of E_J/E_c after the quench from $\delta_i = -4$ to $\delta_f = -5$. (b) The projection of the initial state onto the spectrum of the final Hamiltonian $\hat{H}(\delta_f)$, corresponding to the left panel. Here, the total number of atoms is $N = 10$.

frequency [70, 72, 73]. The Hamiltonian is as follows:

$$\hat{H}(t) = \hat{H}_0(t) + \hat{H}_1, \quad (21)$$

where the diagonal term is

$$\hat{H}_0(t) = \mu \sin(\omega t) \hat{J}_z + \frac{E_c}{2} \hat{J}_z^2, \quad (22)$$

and the off-diagonal term is

$$\hat{H}_1 = -2T \hat{J}_x. \quad (23)$$

$\hat{H}_0(t)$ is periodic in time; that is, $\hat{H}_0(t) = \hat{H}_0(t + \mathcal{T})$, where $\mathcal{T} = 2\pi/\omega$. According to Floquet's theorem [74, 75], $\hat{H}_0(t)$ has a complete set of solutions in the form of

$$|\Psi_m(t)\rangle = |\Phi_m(t)\rangle \exp(-i\varepsilon_m t/\hbar), \quad (24)$$

where ε_m are the quasienergy, and $|\Phi_m(t)\rangle = \exp(i\frac{\mu}{\omega} \cos(\omega t)m) |N/2, m\rangle$ is the Floquet function, which is also periodic in time: $|\Phi_m(t)\rangle = |\Phi_m(t + \mathcal{T})\rangle$. Provided ω/T is sufficiently large compared to NE_c/T and there are no significant resonances induced by the periodic driving, one can obtain the effective time-independent Hamiltonian [72, 73]

$$\hat{H} = \frac{E_c}{2} \hat{J}_z^2 - 2T^{\text{eff}} \hat{J}_x. \quad (25)$$

Here, the effective tunneling strength is $T^{\text{eff}} = T J_0(\frac{2\mu}{\omega})$, where $J_0(x)$ is the zeroth-order Bessel function of the first kind. The renormalization of the tunneling strength facilitates the interplay between the number fluctuations and the phase fluctuations.

In Fig. 9, we show F as a function of the scaled driving amplitude $2\mu/\omega$ for different values of E_J/E_c . It is clearly shown that the periodic driving remarkably modifies F . T^{eff} sensitively relies on $2\mu/\omega$, and it enables the

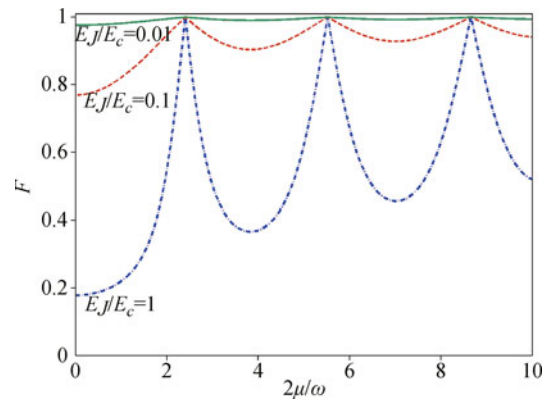


Fig. 9 The fragmentation F versus the scaled driving amplitude $2\mu/\omega$ for $E_J/E_c = 1$ (blue dash-dotted line), $E_J/E_c = 0.1$ (red dashed line), and $E_J/E_c = 0.01$ (green solid line). Here, the total number of atoms is $N = 10$.

possibility of tuning the ratio between the tunneling strength and the interaction strength. Recalling the properties of the zeroth-order Bessel function, T^{eff} quadratically decreases near the zero points of $J_0(x)$, and the tunneling effect is switched off at the zero points of $J_0(x)$, where the system becomes a Fock state with the maximum degree of fragmentation. Each local minimum of F corresponds to a extremum of J_0 . The renormalization of the tunneling strength via periodic modulations enables us to tune F .

5 Summary

In summary, we have investigated the fragmentation of a coupled two-mode Bose–Einstein condensate, which undergoes quantum quenches involving LZ transitions. It is found that the interplay between the asymmetry and the interactions may induce a phase transition from a single condensate to a fragmented one. In particular, the appearance of single-atom tunneling and interaction blockades for sufficiently small values of E_J/E_c leads to a series of notches and plateaus in the fragmentation. In further, we consider dynamic fragmentation in three typical kinds of asymmetry quenches. In a linear quench, the final state becomes a fragmented state owing to the sequential LZ processes. A sequence of notches and plateaus appears in the fragmentation, which can be explained by the sequential LZ transitions. We develop a perturbation theory for such a sequential LZ process. In a sudden quench, we find that the fragmentation is more robust for small values of E_J/E_c . In a periodic quench, the fragmentation can be effectively tuned via control of the modulation amplitude and frequency.

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